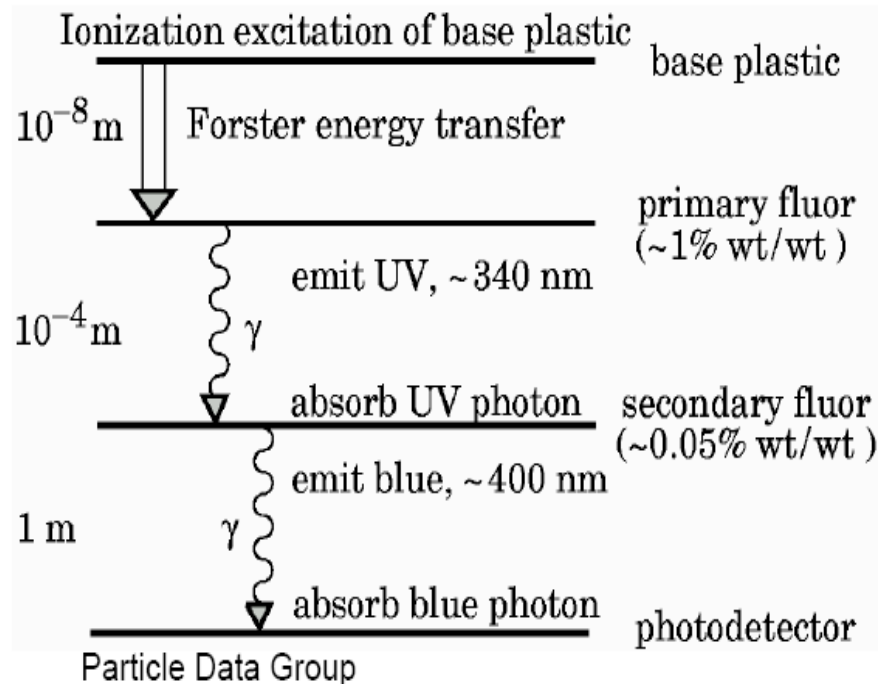


# Organic scintillators

## ■ Scintillation mechanism



scintillation, followed by resonant dipole-dipole interaction with fluor; strong coupling increases

fluor shifts wavelength to where the base is more transparent; shortens the decay time of scintillation and increases yield

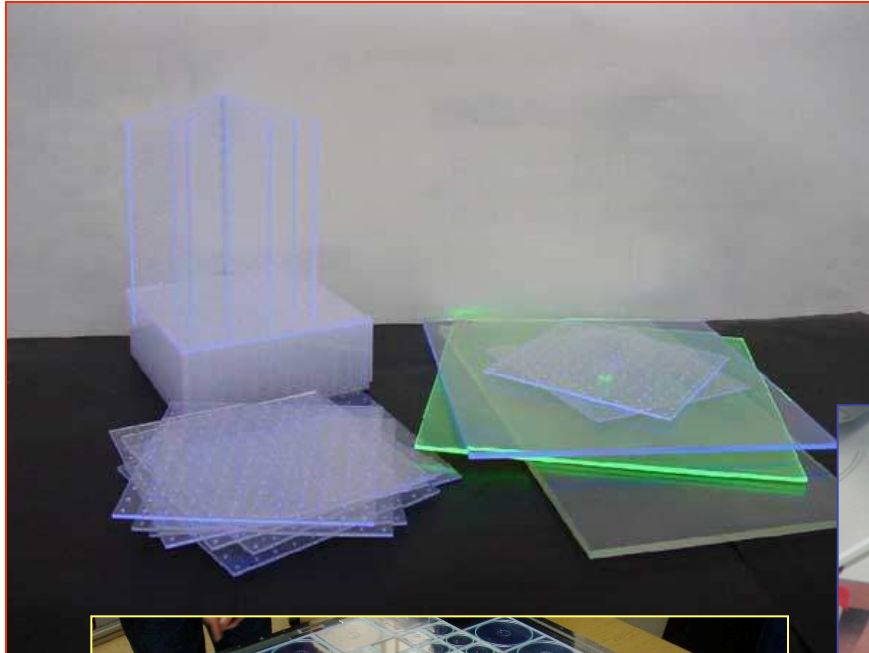
**Cautions:** aging and handling, radiation damage, ...

- they have low  $Z$ , being mainly made of H and C
  - low  $\gamma$  detection efficiency ( $\approx$  only Compton effect).
  - but high neutron detection efficiency via (n,p) reactions

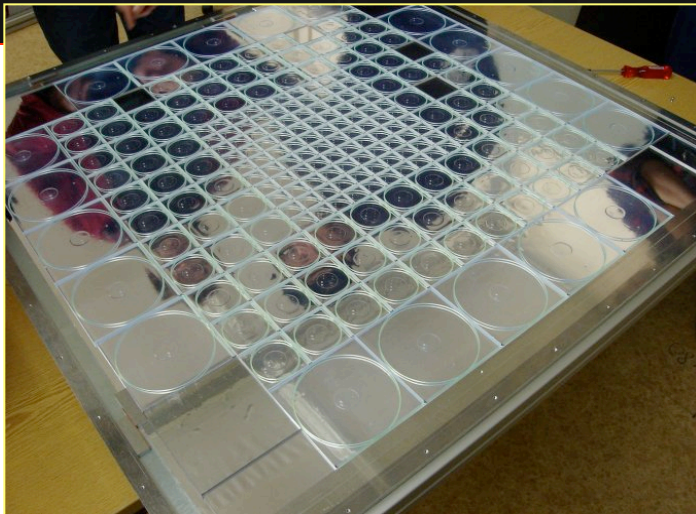
# Organic scintillators – light yield

- Attenuation lengths are sensitive to optical clarity, surface quality (internal reflection) and impurities
  - often deal with >meter lengths of scintillators, so these optical effects are important
- Aging and crazing (microcracks in surface) diminish light yield
- Radiation damage is complex; it affects both light yield and attenuation

# Examples of organic scintillators



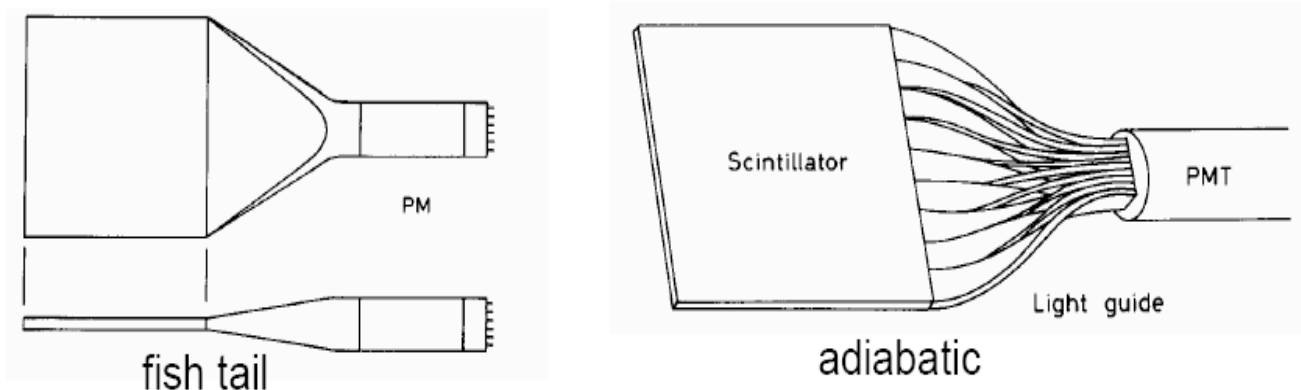
- Tiles are usually wrapped in reflective material and light-tight tape
- Light guide to couple to PMT
- Fiber readout also used



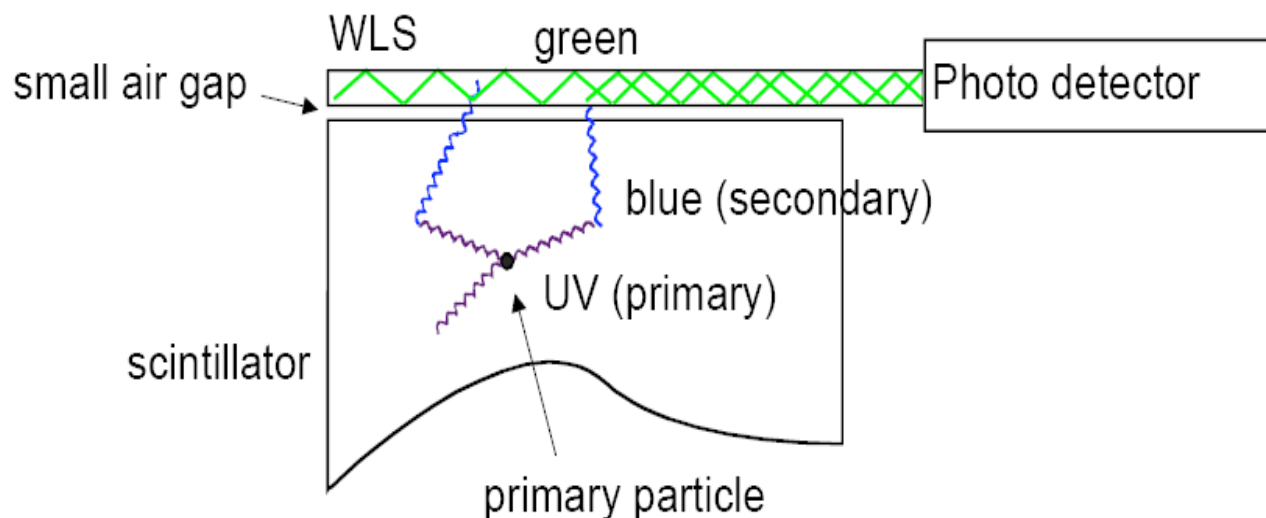
# Scintillator readout

## ■ light guides

- transfer by total internal reflection (and reflector)



## ■ wavelength shifter (WLS) bars



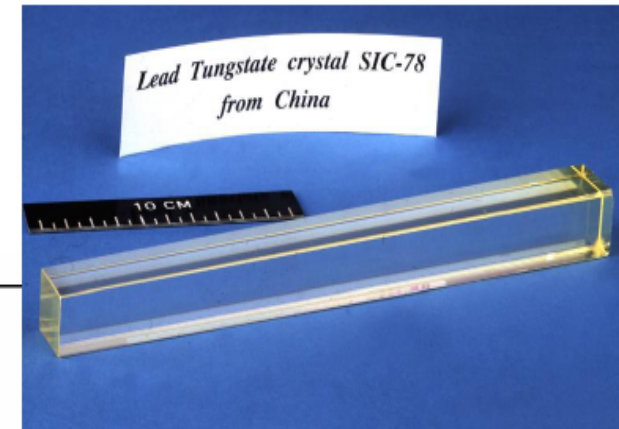
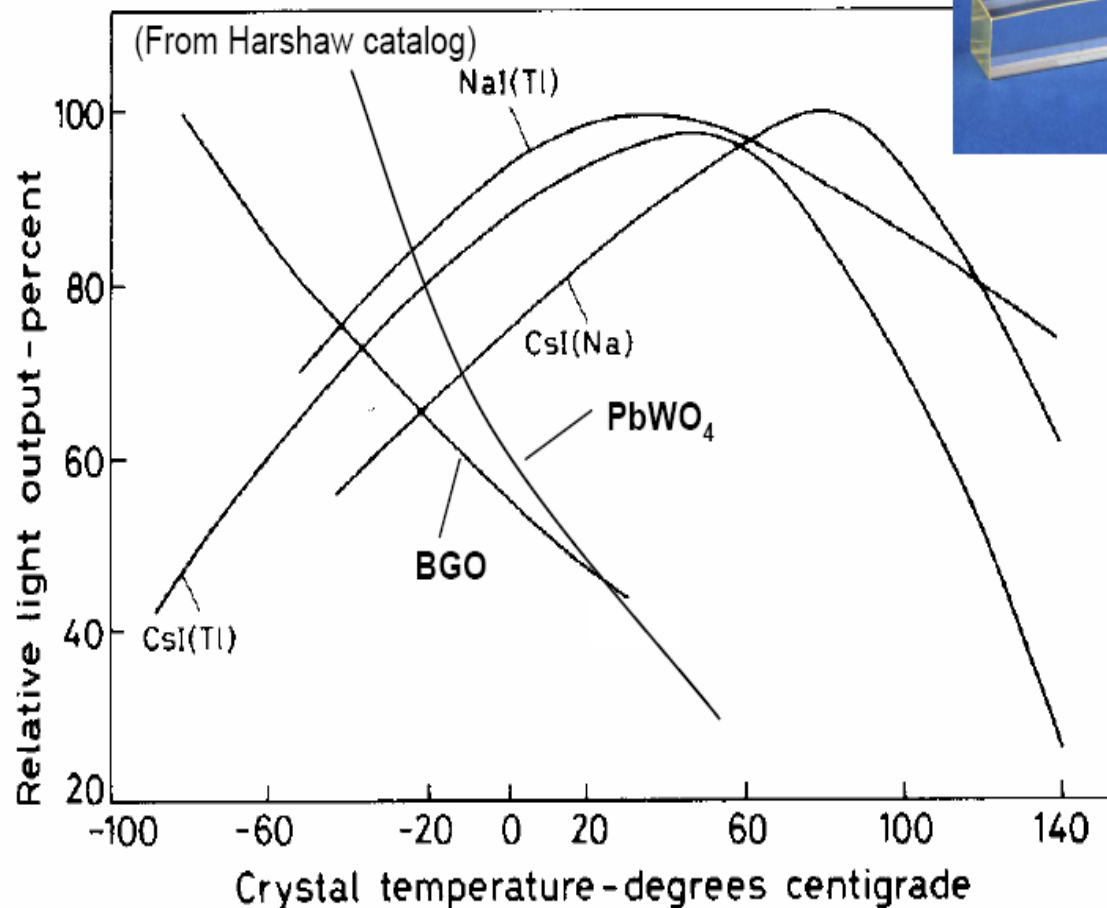
# Inorganic scintillators

## ■ Inorganic crystalline scintillators

- Ionization by charged particles
- NaI, CsI, BaF<sub>2</sub>, Bi<sub>4</sub>Ge<sub>3</sub>O<sub>12</sub>, PbWO<sub>4</sub>,...
- High density and high Z
- well suited for detection of charged particle and  $\gamma$ 
  - densities: between  $\sim 4$  and  $\sim 8$  g cm<sup>-3</sup>
  - high  $dE/dx$
  - high conversion efficiency for electrons and  $\gamma$
  - often with very high light output
- often more than two time constants
  - fast recombination from active centers (ns to  $\mu$ s)
  - delayed recombination due to trapping ( $\approx 100$  ns)

# Inorganic scintillators

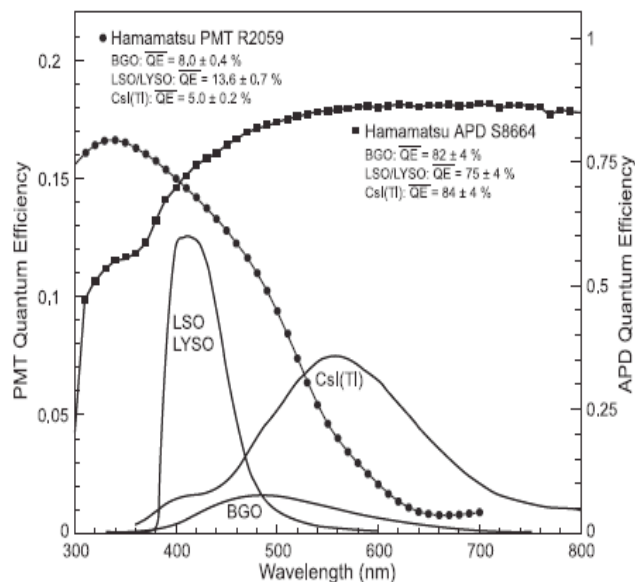
- light output has strong temperature dependence



PbWO<sub>4</sub> final polished crystal for CMS calorimetry

# Inorganic scintillators

- Higher densities, lower light yields relative to organics
- Crystals – slow and expensive to grow
- Light collection efficiency – optical transparency, surface quality, scattering centres
- Signal development can be slow; 100s of ns



Parameter:	$\rho$	MP	$X_0^*$	$R_M^*$	$dE/dx$	$\lambda_I^*$	$\tau_{\text{decay}}$	$\lambda_{\text{max}}$	$n^b$	Relative output <sup>†</sup>	Hygro- scopic?	$d(\text{LY})/dT$ %/°C <sup>‡</sup>
Units:	g/cm <sup>3</sup>	°C	cm	cm	MeV/cm	cm	ns	nm				
NaI(Tl)	3.67	651	2.59	4.13	4.8	42.9	230	410	1.85	100	yes	-0.2
BGO	7.13	1050	1.12	2.23	9.0	22.8	300	480	2.15	21	no	-0.9
BaF <sub>2</sub>	4.89	1280	2.03	3.10	6.6	30.7	630 <sup>s</sup> 0.9 <sup>f</sup>	300 <sup>s</sup> 220 <sup>f</sup>	1.50	36 <sup>s</sup> 3.4 <sup>f</sup>	no	-1.3 <sup>s</sup> ~0 <sup>f</sup>
CsI(Tl)	4.51	621	1.86	3.57	5.6	39.3	1300	560	1.79	165	slight	0.3
CsI(pure)	4.51	621	1.86	3.57	5.6	39.3	35 <sup>s</sup> 6 <sup>f</sup>	420 <sup>s</sup> 310 <sup>f</sup>	1.95	3.6 <sup>s</sup> 1.1 <sup>f</sup>	slight	-1.3
PbWO <sub>4</sub>	8.3	1123	0.89	2.00	10.2	20.7	30 <sup>s</sup> 10 <sup>f</sup>	425 <sup>s</sup> 420 <sup>f</sup>	2.20	0.083 <sup>s</sup> 0.29 <sup>f</sup>	no	-2.7
LSO(Ce)	7.40	2050	1.14	2.07	9.6	20.9	40	420	1.82	83	no	-0.2
GSO(Ce)	6.71	1950	1.38	2.23	8.9	22.2	600 <sup>s</sup>	430	1.85	3 <sup>s</sup>	no	-0.1

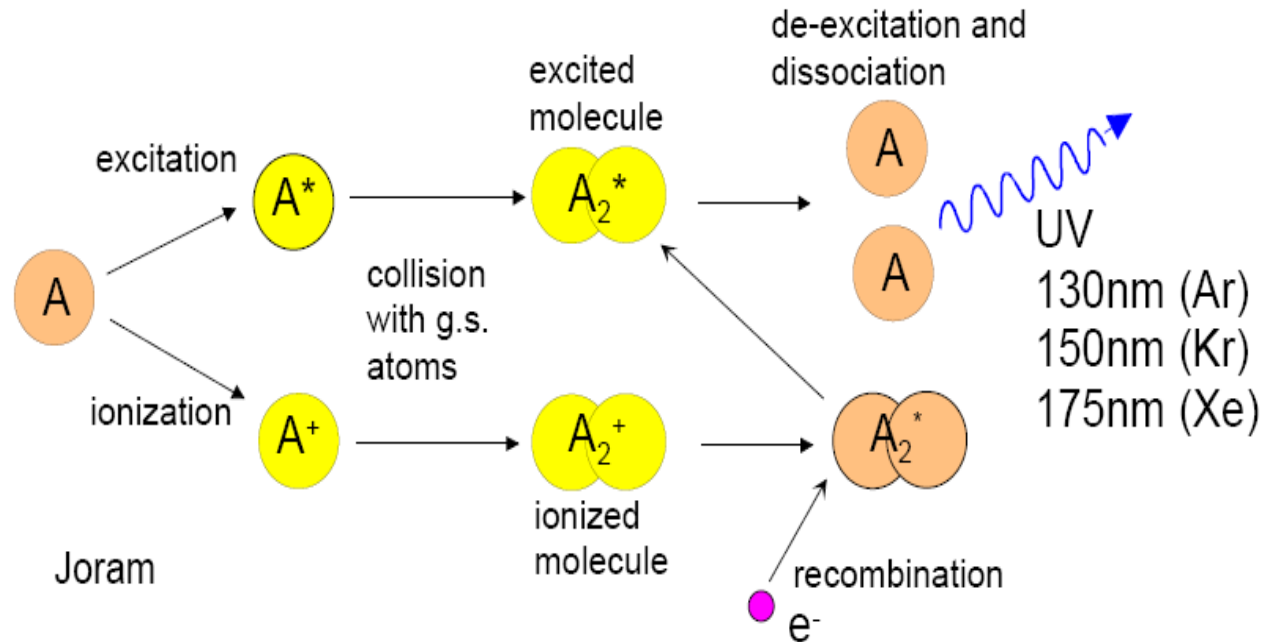
organic ~1 ~40 ~2 ~80 ~2 tune ~25 no

# Inorganic scintillators

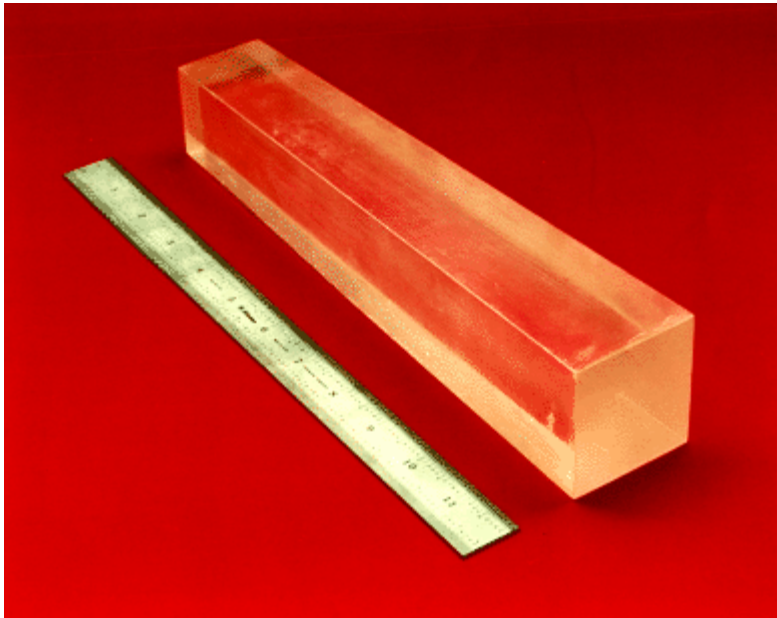
## ■ Liquid noble gases (LAr, LKr, LXe)

### ■ also two time constants

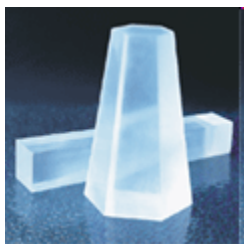
- few ns and 100 to 1000 ns, but same wavelength



# Examples of inorganic scintillators



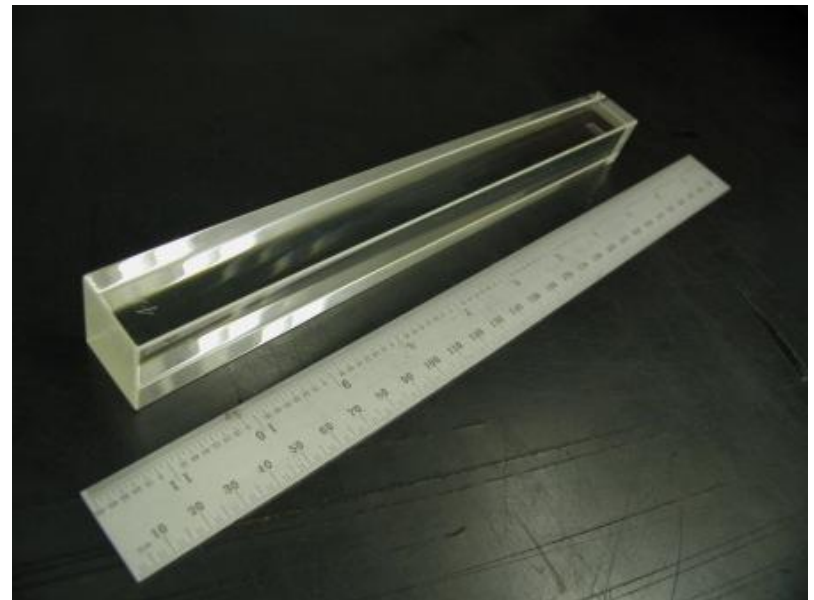
Csl(Tl)



NaI(Tl)



BaF<sub>2</sub>

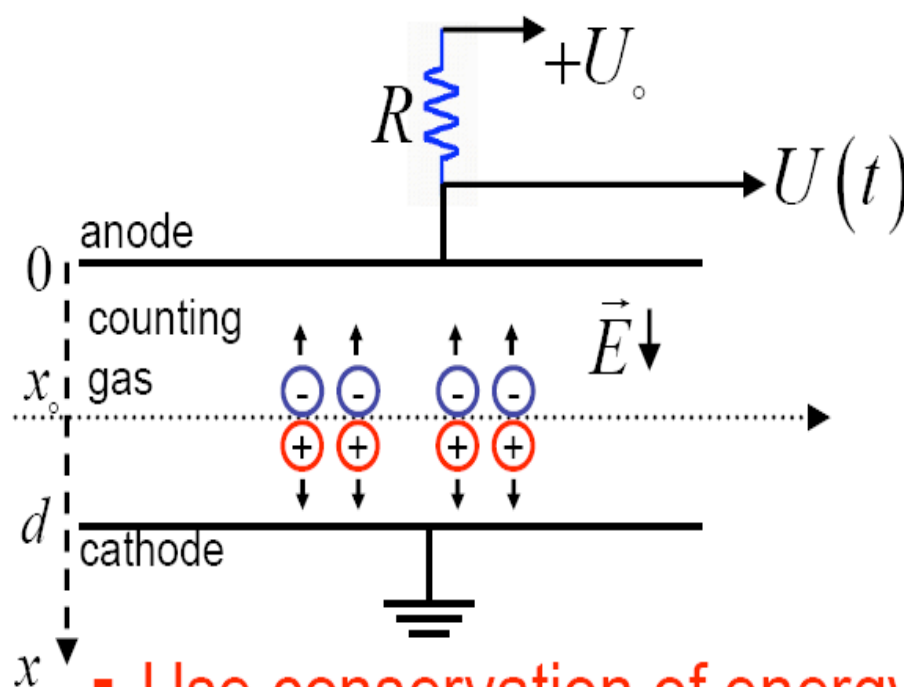


Lead Tungstate

# Ionization chambers

# Ionization chambers

## ■ Parallel electrodes



$$|\vec{E}| = \frac{U(t)}{d} \quad C = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

$$\int_0^{t_d^-} v^- dt = x_0$$

$$\int_0^{t_d^+} v^+ dt = d - x_0$$

$$v^+ < v^- \quad \text{drift velocities depend on the electric field}$$

## ■ Use conservation of energy in C

$$\frac{1}{2} C U_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} C U^2(t) + \text{work done by } \vec{E} \text{ on drifting charges}$$

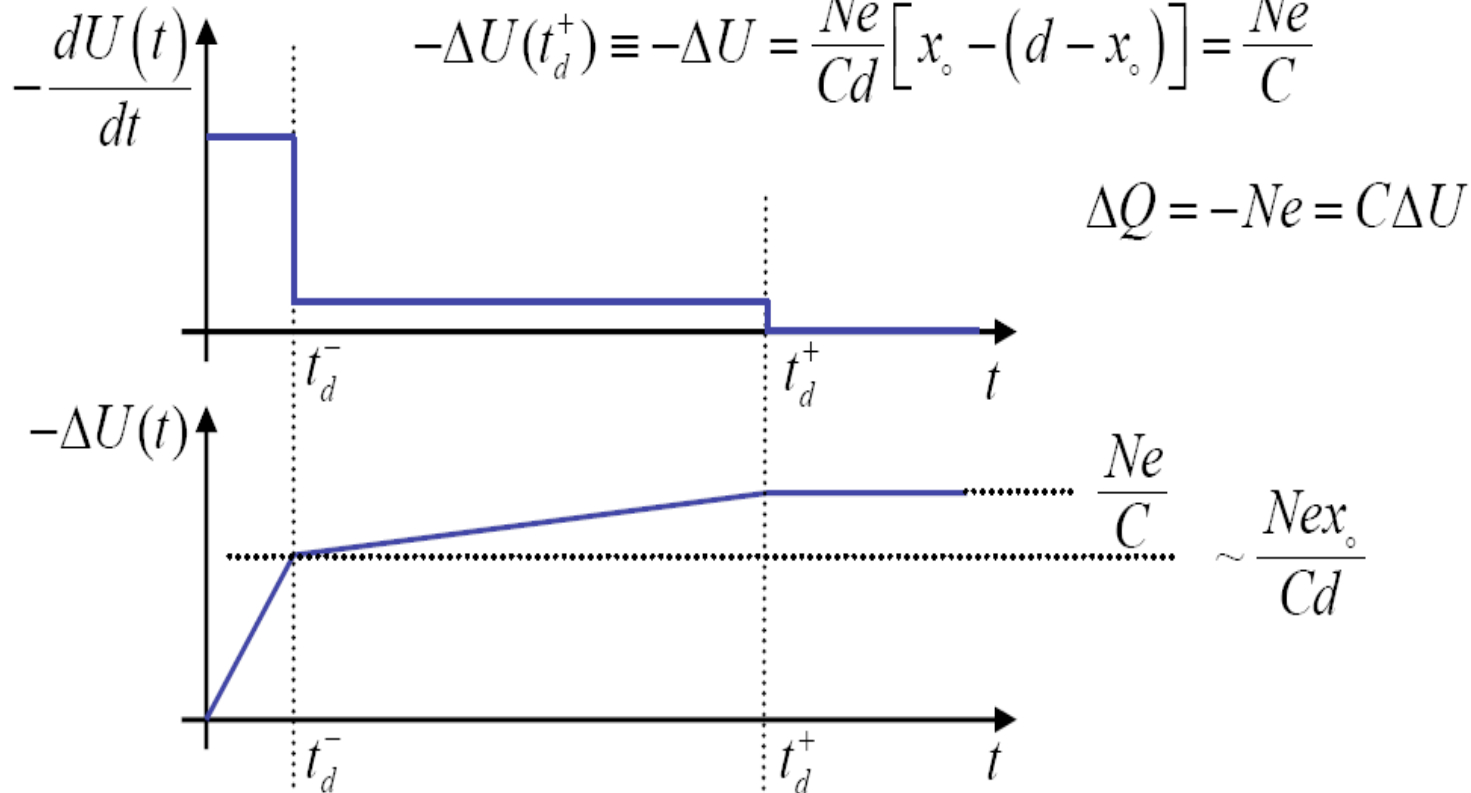
obtain 
$$-\frac{dU(t)}{dt} = \frac{Ne}{Cd} [v^- + v^+] \quad \text{holds for } v = v(|\vec{E}|(t))$$

# Ionization chambers

## ■ Signal

$$\Delta U(t) = U(t) - U_0 = \Delta U^-(t) + \Delta U^+(t)$$

$$-\Delta U(t_d^+) \equiv -\Delta U = \frac{Ne}{Cd} [x_0 - (d - x_0)] = \frac{Ne}{C}$$

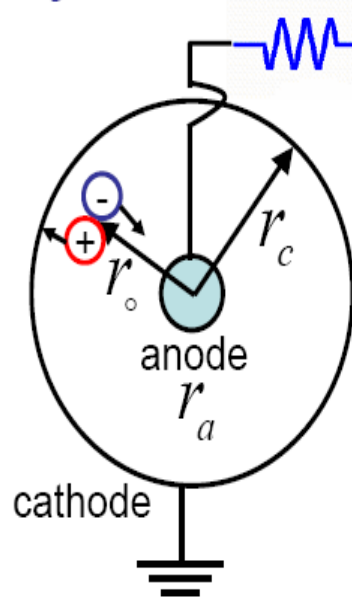


$$\frac{\Delta U^+}{\Delta U^-} = \frac{d - x_0}{x_0} \quad \text{If } x_0 = \frac{1}{2}d \quad \text{then } \frac{\Delta U^+}{\Delta U^-} = 1$$

# Ionization chambers

## ■ Cylindrical electrodes

$$|\vec{E}(r)| = \frac{U}{r \ln \frac{r_c}{r_a}} \propto \frac{1}{r}$$



If approximation  $v^\pm \propto |\vec{E}|$  then

$$\left. \begin{aligned} -\Delta U^- &= \frac{Ne}{C} \frac{(\ln r_+ - \ln r_a)}{(\ln r_c - \ln r_a)} \\ -\Delta U^+ &= \frac{Ne}{C} \frac{(\ln r_c - \ln r_+)}{(\ln r_c - \ln r_a)} \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} \Delta U &= \Delta U^- + \Delta U^+ \\ &= -\frac{Ne}{C} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\Delta U^+}{\Delta U^-} = \frac{\ln r_c - \ln r_+}{\ln r_+ - \ln r_a} \quad \text{If } r_+ = \frac{2}{3} r_c \text{ and } r_a \ll r_c \text{ then } \frac{\Delta U^+}{\Delta U^-} = \frac{\ln \frac{3}{2}}{\ln \frac{2r_c}{3r_a}} < 1$$

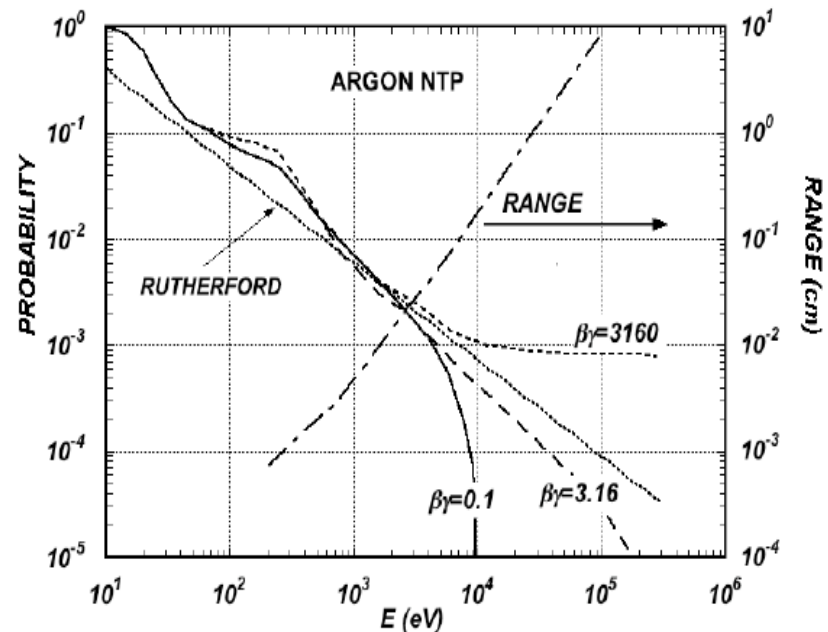
$$\text{for } r_c = 1 \text{ cm and } r_a = 30 \mu\text{m then } \frac{\Delta U^+}{\Delta U^-} = 0.075$$

- in general electrons contribute more to the signal
- discharging C: pocket dosimeter

# Charge transport in gases

- Recall primary/total ionization ( $n_T \sim 2\text{-}3 \times n_P$ )
- Distribution of ejected electrons  $\sim 1/E^2$  ( $E$ =electron energy)
- Ionization clusters form around energetic secondary electrons; can degrade time and position resolution

Probability of producing an electron of energy  $\geq E$  (left scale), and range of electrons in Argon at NTP (right scale)



# Drift velocity

- Liberated electrons accelerated by applied field, but have small mean-time-between-collisions  $\tau$ , so  $v_d = e E \tau / m \ll v_{\text{rms}}$  (think Ohm's law)

- More sophisticated model ( $\omega = \text{Larmor freq } eB/m$ ):

$$\mathbf{v}_d = \frac{e}{m} \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \left( \mathbf{E} + \frac{\omega \tau}{B} (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}) + \frac{\omega^2 \tau^2}{B^2} (\mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{B}) \mathbf{B} \right)$$

- Drift velocity depends on  $\tau$ , i.e. on collisional cross-sections; very sensitive to gas mixture, contaminants
- $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{B}$  force causes “Lorentz angle” (see above);

$$\tan \theta_B = \omega \tau$$